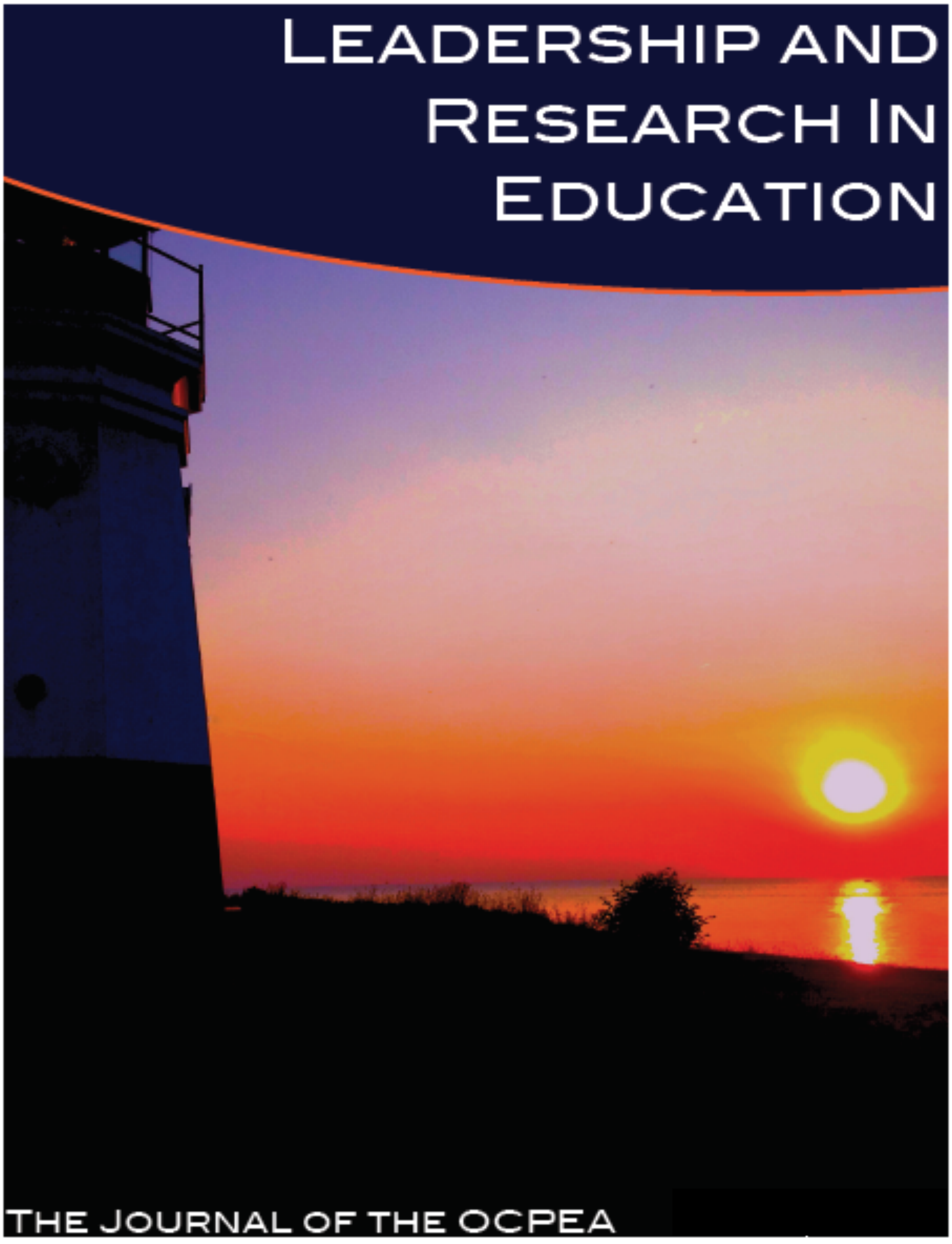
Leadership and Research In Education
The Journal of the OCPEA

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA)

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA

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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Editorial and Review Board, 2021-2022

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Vision:

Organic. **C**reative. **P**rofessional. **E**ngaging. **A**ccessible.

Mission:

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA offers an academic forum for scholarly discussions of education, curriculum and pedagogy, leadership theory, and policy studies in order to elucidate effective practices for classrooms, schools, and communities.

The mission of the OCPEA journal is to not only publish high quality manuscripts on various political, societal, and policy-based issues in the field of education, but also to provide our authors with opportunities for growth through our extensive peer review process. We encourage graduate students, practitioners, and early career scholars to submit manuscripts, as well as senior faculty and administrators. We accept quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, and action research based approaches as well as non-traditional and creative approaches to educational research and policy analysis, including the application of educational practices.

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OCPEA Call for Papers and Publication Information, 2022:

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions. Submissions must include a one hundred word abstract and five key words. Send one electronic copy of the manuscript to the editor using MS Word as well as a signed letter by the author(s) authorizing permission to publish the manuscript. Additionally, a separate cover page must be included containing the article title, author name(s), professional title(s), highest degree(s) obtained, institutional affiliation(s), email address(es), telephone and FAX numbers. Only the article title should appear on the subsequent pages to facilitate a triple-blind reviewing of the manuscript. Submissions should be approximately 15-20 pages including references. Submissions must align to the standards of the *APA Manual* (7th ed.) beginning 2021. Submissions must be double-spaced, 12 point Times New Roman font with one inch margins on all sides, each page numbered.

Deadline for Volume 8 Issue 1 (Expected in August, 2022) submissions is **May 31, 2023.**

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Policy Analysis
We seek analysis of policies impacting students, teachers, educational leaders, schools in general, and higher education. How have policy proposals at the state or national level, such as the introduction and adoption of national and state standards, affected curriculum, instruction, or assessment of leadership preparation and administrative credential programs?

Preparing Educational Leaders
We seek manuscripts that detail effective resources and practices that are useful to faculty members in the preparation of school leaders.

Diversity and Social Justice
We seek manuscripts on issues related to diversity that impact schools and school leaders, such as strategies to dismantle hegemonic practices, recruit and retain under-represented populations in schools and universities, promote democratic schools, and effective practices for closing the achievement gap.

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We seek manuscripts that detail how to prepare leaders for an information age in a global society.

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The members of OCPEA are interested in pursuing the following: various research paradigms and methodologies, ways to integrate scholarly research into classrooms, ways to support student research and participatory action research, and how to use educational research to influence public policy.

For more information, contact OCPEA Journal Editor: Yoko Miura at ocpeajournal@gmail.com

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA)

Volume 7, Issue 1, 2022

A Note from the Editorial Board

Yoko Miura, Editor
Wright State University

Welcome to the Volume 7, Issue 1 of Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). In the tradition of the International Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (ICPEL), we offer this venue to regional researchers and practitioners to bridge the divide between them, providing research that is relevant, regional, and relatable and from a grassroots perspective. The collegial work and growth that produced this publication foreshadows our continued success both for the journal and OCPEA in general.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA) is peer reviewed by members of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (OCPEA) and their colleagues. OCPEA is honored to bring forth this important and timely publication and hope not only to inform readers with our work, but also to inspire practitioners, graduate students, novice and seasoned faculty members to write for our journal. Part of our mission is to mentor beginning scholars through the writing and publishing process. We would appreciate if our readers would pass on our mission, vision, and call for papers to graduate students and junior faculty as well as to colleagues who are already experts in their fields.

OCPEA is pleased to present an eclectic mix of research and theoretical articles in this issue that are both timely and thought provoking for scholars and practitioners alike in the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. The manuscripts in this issue detail many of the current controversies in the field of education as we currently experience them, including legal issues impacting school leaders, issues of funding inequities for public schools, and the intersection of schooling and politics.

We would like to acknowledge the many who have helped to shepherd *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA) into a living entity. First, we thank our authors for submitting their work. Second, we thank our board of editors who worked tirelessly to create the policies and procedures and who took the idea of an ICPEL journal for the state of Ohio to fruition. Third, we wish to express gratitude to our esteemed panel of reviewers. Each manuscript goes through an extensive three-person peer review panel, and we are quite proud of the mentoring that has resulted as a part of this process. Fourth, we give a special thanks to the Board of OCPEA who has supported the vision and mission of

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). The support and guidance of the Board throughout the process of publishing this issue has been inestimable.

Finally, OCPEA is indebted to Brad Bizzell of ICPEL Publications for their direction and support. On behalf of the Board of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration*, the OCPEA Board, and the general membership of OCPEA, we collectively thank the readers of this publication. We hope the information provided will guide readers toward a deeper understanding of the many facets of the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. OCPEA hopes to continue to provide readers with insightful and reflective research.

The Interface of Leadership Development and Extracurricular Activity: Exploring the Effects of Involvement in Extracurricular Activity on Community Leadership

Juhee Kim
University of Idaho

Elizabeth Wargo
University of Idaho

Abstract

This study informs the field of education of the importance of providing a wide variety of extracurricular activities for students and its effect on students' community leadership development. Data were collected from college students (N = 705) and analyzed using quantitative methodology. Results indicate that high involvement level students indicated relatively high citizenship in leadership outcomes. Also, students' self-perception of leadership skills was the most significant predictor of community values of leadership development outcomes.

This study highlights the need for higher education institutions to encourage students to participate in extracurricular activities involving groups to enhance community leadership that advances positive social change.

Keywords: Leadership developments, Higher education, Extracurricular activity, Social change, Quantitative research

College students can enhance their leadership abilities and skills during their college years (Dugan et al., 2013; Hevel et al., 2018; Kim, 2022; Sowcik & Komives, 2020), and this leadership development can be related in part to collegiate extracurricular involvement. An analysis across studies pertaining to extracurricular activities reveals critical predictors of

student leadership development. Experiences in extracurricular or co-curricular activities improve student learning experiences and influence student leadership development (Komives & Wagner, 2017; Martinez et al., 2020; Mcree & Haber-Curran, 2016; Zeeman et al., 2019).

Although a relationship between student extracurricular or co-curricular involvement and leadership outcomes has been established (Foreman & Retallick, 2016; Kim 2022; Mehring, 2018; Simonsen et al., 2014; Soria & Johnson, 2020), little is known about how extracurricular experiences influence a college student's community leadership development outcomes. Further exploration at this intersection is critical as student's leadership knowledge and capacity, and as a whole, contribute to community change for the common good as it is associated with the Social Change Model (SCM) of leadership development (Komives & Wagner, 2017). SCM is facilitated through a purpose-driven, value-based process and collaborative approach (Chen, 2021; Foreman & Retallick, 2016; Kim, 2022; Martinez et al., 2020; Mitchell & Soria, 2017). Drawing on student development theory, this study focuses on college student leadership development using the SCM. This theoretical frame focuses explicitly on college students and is consistent with the emerging leadership paradigm (Komives & Wagner, 2017).

The purpose of this study is to explore how extracurricular activity experiences influence student leadership development. Two research areas are covered. First, the study examines the relationship between extracurricular involvement and leadership development outcomes demonstrated by involvement experiences and index level. The difference in the mean of community values of leadership development outcomes, indicated by quantitative (e.g., amount of time spent, number of extracurricular clubs) and qualitative (e.g., the highest level of participation) aspects, is used to calculate extracurricular involvement experiences.

The involvement index is determined by a combination of involved years and the level of participation. Second, the study analyzes how general characteristics, pre-collegiate, and collegiate experiences contribute to the college students' community values of leadership development. The examination of the effects of participating in extracurricular activities is important to this study because it helps to identify factors contributing to significant differences in leadership development.

Theoretical Framework

The conceptual framework draws from Astin's (1999) theory of student involvement, the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (SCM) (HERI, 1996), and the Collegiate Leadership Development Model (Foreman & Retallick, 2016). Student involvement theory is a developmental theory of student success that suggests student involvement through physical attendance and behavioral energy on college campuses directly affects their persistence in school. The SCM advances a model for student leadership in higher education at the individual, group, and community levels with an understanding that leadership should be values-based, a collaborative ongoing process with outcomes for the common good (Kim 2022). Finally, the collegiate leadership development model combines successful school and extracurricular experiences with involvement.

Review of Literature

Involvement in extracurricular activities has been associated with several positive adolescent outcomes (Lois & John, 2015; Smith & Chenoweth, 2015; Rosch& Nelson 2018). For instance, adolescents involved in school and community-based civic activities reported more religiosity, academic engagement, and positive perceptions of parents and peers than uninvolved ones (Ludden, 2011). In this section, the study reviews the relevant literature about involvement

in extracurricular activity and student leadership development as a category.

Involvement in Extracurricular Activity

Research indicates student participation in extracurricular clubs and organizations yields several positive outcomes for adolescents (Guilmette et al., 2019; Shaffer, 2019). Adolescent involvement in school and community activities increases positive perceptions of parents and peers (Majee & Anakwe, 2020; Oosterhoff et al.., 2020). For those attending college, undergraduate involvement in extracurricular activities has been linked to higher measures of interpersonal competence such as teamwork, decision making, conflict resolution, and communication (Kholiavko et al., 2020; King, 2020), which are paramount for effective leadership.

Although prior research has demonstrated a multitude of benefits for adolescents participating in extracurricular activities, less is known about specific aspects of extracurricular participation and their impact on leadership development. Foreman and Retallick (2016) found the leadership role taken and the number of organizations a student was involved in influenced leadership scores suggesting that involvement in three to four organizations was optimal. According to Foreman and Retallick (2016), the number of clubs and hours students spent participating in each club matters. However, Heaslip and colleagues (2021) indicated that over-scheduling extracurricular activities could result in poor adjustment, higher stress, and/or less time spent with family. Developing the leadership skills necessary to engage in extra, but not too many extra activities, then may be a critical aspect of extracurricular participation of which little is known.

Leadership Development

Leadership skills enable students to interact effectively and harmoniously with other

people (Lippman et al., 2015; Page et al., 2021). Research suggests that interaction between students positively affects leadership development, academic success, and critical thinking. Student service programs, collegiate organizations, and service-learning projects are examples of collegiate settings where students may develop and improve their leadership capabilities. Wuetherick (2018) asserted that participation in a service-learning project encourages students to create effective social change. Kim (2022) also noted a massive growth in leadership development programs on college campuses, which attributed to the necessity for effective leadership development in training tomorrow's leaders and, ultimately, the significance of leadership in society.

Student experiences are essential because student participation in pedagogically purposeful activities positively impacts student learning and achievement during college (Goudih et al., 2018). According to Martinez and colleagues (2020), students should be taught how to engage in meaningful dialogue across differences and intentionally create opportunities to do so in leadership development. The degree to which students interact with and are mentored by faculty is also positively related to overall leadership capacity. Komives and Wagner (2017) argued that the community service and leadership development offices on campus operate separately from one another. They suggested that connections concerning leadership, social justice, and social activism need to be made.

Several researchers have examined learning experiences and leadership development (Dugan et al., 2013; Foreman & Retallick, 2016; Kim, 2022; Martinez et al., 2020; Mehring, 2018; Soria & Johnson, 2020). General engagement in the collegiate environment and, particularly, involvement as members of clubs and organizations is positively associated with leadership skills and efficacy (Kim 2022; Komives & Warner, 2017; Leupold et al., 2020;

Martinez et al., 2020). More specifically, collegiate leadership development and experiential activity are related to students' self-efficacy and resilience (Leupold et al., 2020). Lois and John's (2015) research demonstrated that students' perceptions of their activities influenced leadership skills. Results revealed that students involved in extracurricular activities showed higher positive self-perceptions of leadership characteristics than students who did not participate in activities. According to Jenkins (2020), educational institutions/organizations could not function appropriately without students' contributions. Komives and Wagner (2017) also suggested that higher education institutions should infuse high-impact learning strategies in their mission, including service-learning, efficacy-building experiences, and group involvement opportunities.

Methodology

The study used quantitative data to identify relations between extracurricular activities and community leadership development outcomes. A web-based questionnaire was administered to identify specific traits and experiences associated with higher levels of leadership outcomes. In addition, the study conducted statistical analyses to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences in leadership development outcomes by general characteristics (gender, class level, and student type) and experiences participating in extracurricular activities (pre-collegiate, collegiate)?
2. Are there significant differences in leadership development outcomes by involvement experiences of extracurricular activities and the involvement index level?
3. Are there significant correlations between experiences of extracurricular activity and community value of leadership development outcomes?
4. Does the relationship between experiences of extracurricular activity and leadership development

outcomes differ after accounting for the control measures (collegiate experiences, involvement level)?

Population and Sampling Procedures

The target population of this study was undergraduate students of three universities in eastern Kentucky. The gender demographics of the survey represented 186 male students (26.3%) and 517 female students (73.2%). With ethnic background, the demographics of the survey represented 601 white/Caucasian (81.9%), 42 Asian American/Asian (5.7%), and 36 African American/Black (4.9%) in that order. For current class level, there were 371 seniors/others (52.5%), 161 juniors (22.8%), 135 sophomores (19.1%), and 39 freshmen (5.5%). A purposive sampling technique was used to learn more about students' extracurricular experiences. As a non-probability sampling method, Black (2010) defines the purposive sampling method that allows the researcher a choice of elements selected for the sample. Thus, the study surveyed upperclassmen students who have more opportunities to participate in extracurricular activities.

Data Collection

University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved this study. Students' contact information was received from the universities' registrar's office, institutional research center, the office of international student services, and the multicultural students' office. Data collection was conducted from August 6th to the 27th in 2020. Among the 3,212 email lists of students, 732 college students (23%) responded to this online survey to answer the research questions. Seven hundred five data entries were processed after incomplete data and response set errors were eliminated.

Instrumentation

The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (University of Maryland, 2010, SRLS-R2) was used to measure leadership development. The SRLS-R2 is commonly used to measure the impact of leadership experiences. The scale has 68 items from the Social Change Model (SCM), which comprise individual, group, and community values. The SRLS-R2 measures the eight values of the SCM based on students' self-reports. This study focused only on community values that have citizenship and change variables. Questions are formatted in a Likert Scale, ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 as Strongly Disagree and 5 as Strongly Agree.

The validity and reliability of the scale were evaluated during its initial testing (University of Maryland, 2010), with Cronbach alpha scores ranging from 0.69 to 0.92. Similarly, the SRLS exhibited strong internal reliability in the current study, with Cronbach alpha scores from 0.81 to 0.88. As a result, it was found to be higher than 0.70 in all areas of SRLS-R2, which satisfied the confidence level.

The survey was integrated with a pre-existing instrument for measuring leadership development outcomes and questions on extracurricular activity experiences through literature reviews. The instrument (see Appendix A) was organized into collegiate experiences, pre-collegiate experiences, and leadership development following this study's conceptual framework. First, subjects were asked if they were involved in any extracurricular activities, performed any off-campus internships, or received any leadership training other than classwork while in college. They also were asked follow-up questions regarding their experiences based on their responses to the participation question. Next, participants were asked how many organizations they were active in, the amount of time they spent per week in every organization, the number of years they had participated in the organizations, and their highest

level of commitment.

Prior to collecting data, face validity, content validity, and internal validity were established by a group of students similar to those in the sample. Expert panels of staff and faculty with experience as leaders in the extracurricular/co-curricular activity/student organizations viewed the survey. A group of doctoral students and professors were asked for their input regarding face validity. This expert panel included faculty members in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, graduate students, and extension staff members at the university.

After carefully considering the suggestions of both student and professional panels, changes were made to the instrument, including both content and question format. Pretesting and piloting discovered survey items that did not make sense to participants or questioning issues that might lead to biased responses. These questions and concerns were ameliorated by refining the questions.

Data Analyses

Qualtrics automatically logged survey responses as individuals finished the survey. After data collection was finished, raw data was verified for missing information and obvious mistakes. Then, the data were analyzed using the SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 24.0.) application.

To investigate the quantitative and qualitative aspects of involvement experiences in extracurricular clubs and organizations, as well as their relationships with community values of leadership development, inferential statistics were computed to see if there were mean differences regarding research question one.

According to Foreman and Retallick (2016), the extracurricular involvement index was

constructed by adding the number of years students reported they were active in extracurricular activities and the highest level of engagement in that activity. The involvement score was divided into three levels and utilized as the independent variable in an ANOVA to analyze the differences in leadership development outcomes by involvement index.

Correlation analysis was used to identify the relationship between related variables. This indicated the correlations respectively between several variables: high school extracurricular participation, college extracurricular participation, and community values of leadership development outcomes.

The key statistical approach in research question four was hierarchical linear regression. The conceptual framework was mirrored in variable blocking, which shaped previous research. To compare the impact of independent factors, two independent blocks were employed. This first block (Model 1), including general characteristics and pre-collegiate experiences (i.e., gender, student type, pre-collegiate extracurricular involvement and leadership training, and self-perception of leadership) explained the percentage of the variance of the dependent variable community values. The second block (Model 2), including collegiate experiences (i.e., extracurricular involvement, internship, and leadership training), indicated the explained variance by percentage for the model.

Results

Students who put in at least seven hours every week with extracurricular activities scored higher than those who spent one or fewer hours per week. Specifically, in citizenship, students who spent seven or more hours per week scored high, and those who spent one or fewer hour per week scored relatively low, showing a significant difference ($p < .05$). The amount of time per week and the number of years that students were actively engaged in extracurricular leadership matters. Students actively involved for five or more years in

extracurricular organizations while in college showed a higher score in community values of leadership development (SRLS-R2) ($p < .05$).

There was also a significant difference in students' community values total ($p < .05$). Citizenship, a sub-variable, was also significant ($p < .05$). Students involved in the state or national level leadership scored high, and those who were members and committee members scored relatively low. Overall, the difference in leadership development according to the highest level of participation in extracurricular activity organizations/clubs while in college showed significant differences ($p < .05$).

The extracurricular involvement index was computed by summing the number of years a student reported they were active in a particular extracurricular activity, their highest level of engagement within this activity while in college and high school, and their self-perception of leadership. The involvement score was divided into three roughly equal groups and utilized as the independent variable to assess the association between this construct and leadership development outcomes evaluated by the SRLS-R2 scale. When it came to community values, citizenship showed a significant difference ($p < .05$). In other words, when students' involvement index level was high, they scored high in citizenship levels in leadership development (SRLS-R2), but those with moderate or low involvement levels scored comparatively low.

According to the correlation analysis of related variables for participating in extracurricular organizations/clubs while in college, there was a significant positive correlation with community values total ($r = .139$, $p < .05$). Students who participated in extracurricular activities while in high school also showed a significant positive correlation with community values total ($r = .079$, $p < .05$).

Using regression analysis, Model 1 was significant collectively. All seven variables

entered allowed Model 1 to predict community values of leadership development ($F = 2.469$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .146$). Seven predictor variables accounted for 14.6% of the variance in the community values of leadership development. The same trend was seen in Model 2 ($F = 1.980$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .163$) and the five predictor variables entered accounted for 16.3% of the variance in the community values of leadership development (SRLS-R2). Self-perception had a significant positive effect ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) on community values of leadership development. When the self-perception of leadership skills is high, the total community values increase. Leadership perception is the only significant predictor of community values of leadership development outcomes.

Table 1

Impact on Community Values Total Regression Analysis Coefficients

Model	Variable	*Unstandardized Coefficients*		*Standardized Coefficients*	*t*	*Sig.*	VIF
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	4.10	.25		16.41	.000	
	Gender (M0, F1)	-.02	.05	-.02	-.42	.674	1.04
	Class level	.04	.03	.07	1.38	.169	1.04
	Student type (Yes0, No1)	.02	.10	.01	.21	.836	1.11
	HS Leadership training	-.07	.05	-.08	-1.38	.168	1.32
	HS Number of years	.03	.03	.06	1.07	.286	1.30
	HS Highest level	.01	.02	.03	-.39	.695	1.58
	Perception	.08	.03	.15	2.69**	.007	1.19
2	(Constant)	4.29	.28		15.12***	.000	
	Gender (M0, F1)	-.01	.05	-.01	-.25	.803	1.06
	Class level	-.01	.03	-.01	-.19	.848	1.72
	Student type (Yes0, No1)	.01	.10	.01	.13	.896	1.24
	HS Leadership training	-.06	.05	-.07	-1.15	.252	1.44
	HS Number of years	.03	.03	.07	1.11	.268	1.37
	HS Highest level	-.02	.02	-.05	-.78	.435	1.69
	Perception	.07	.03	.14	2.41*	.017	1.21
	Leadership training	-.01	.05	-.01	-.16	.875	1.36
	Internship	-.07	.06	-.07	-1.28	.201	1.23
	Number of years	.02	.03	.05	.61	.541	2.07
	Highest level	.03	.02	.09	1.30	.194	1.61

Note. Dependent variable: Community Values

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Conclusions

As colleges and universities highlight the significance of leadership development in college students, and as the demand for evaluation and accountability develops, there is necessary to understand students' leadership development and the experiences that influence this advancement. This study revealed a significant relationship between extracurricular activity and leadership development. It also demonstrated how extracurricular activity benefited college students' leadership development in terms of community values as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale. The following are the key findings: First, the amount and variety of extracurricular involvement affect leadership development outcomes. The results indicated that students who were actively involved in extracurricular activities with five or more organizations had relatively higher leadership outcomes than those without involvement. Students who spent five or more years in extracurricular organizations had higher leadership outcomes than other groups.

Furthermore, students who served at the state or national leadership level or were organizations or clubs' officers scored relatively higher than the ordinary members. As a result, the higher competencies frequently attributed to involvement level may be linked to the additional training officers get. However, further research is needed to make this determination.

Second, self-perception of leadership skill was a major predictor of community values of leadership development outcomes, and it was related positively. As students' leadership perception increases, so too do their community values. There may be opportunities for teachers, advisors, mentors, and coaches to increase student perceptions of their own

leadership skills. Engaging with peers and others in organizational contexts may give a chance to review self-perception in the setting of others and encourage the development of self-leadership. Therefore, educators need to encourage students to engage in extracurricular activities to help develop students' leadership self-perception.

Extracurricular activities are an excellent way for college students to develop leadership. College administrators should develop a system to establish the relationship between extracurricular activities and student leadership development. Based on the findings of this study, educators might pay attention to students' extended participation in organizations and taking state and national leadership roles. These active involvements will likely yield citizenship growth and leadership development for meaningful social change.

Therefore, educators should reevaluate the influence extracurricular activities have on student leadership development outcomes and design services and programs intentionally that provide a meaningful experience for all students involved. It is up to education leaders to encourage students' involvement in extracurricular activities and create meaningful experiences that enhance their success during and after college.

Limitations

The study was completed at three universities in one state. Compared to studies with larger samples in other states, a study of this scope may limit generalizability. Also, the data used for this study was self-reported data by college students, which is something to consider when generalizing because the responses represent points of view. This study set a significance of .05%. In addition, the study looked at only twelve predictor variables in general characteristics, pre-collegiate, and collegiate experiences.

Future Research

Future researchers might consider collecting longitudinal and multi-informant data to identify other aspects of extracurricular activity participation. More study is also needed to investigate the positive and negative factors associated with student engagement in student organizations/club participation for leadership development. Researchers especially need to look deeper into how pre-collegiate experiences influence the leadership development outcomesof college students over time and how officers' training affects leadership development. A qualitative study using focus groups of student leaders who were club presidents might reveal interesting insights into officer training's effects on leadership development.

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[Appendix A. Survey Instrument]

Questionnaire

Thank you for participating in this research study about extracurricular and leadership experiences. Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw from this study at any time and skip any questions that you do not feel comfortable answering. Please select the "NEXT" button to consent to participate in the survey.

PART A.

1. What is your gender?
   - Female
   - Male
   - Not include above

2. Please indicate your ethnic background. (Mark all that apply)
   - White/Caucasian
   - African American/Black
   - Asian American/Asian
   - Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
   - Latino/Latina
   - Multiracial
   - Race/ethnicity not included above

3. What is your current class level?
   - First-year/freshman
   - Sophomore
   - Junior
   - Senior
   - Other

4. What is your student type?
   - International
   - Domestic/USA

5. If you are an international student, please indicate the region you are coming from.
   - Africa
   - Asia
   - Europe
   - Middle East
   - North America
   - Oceania
   - South America
   - Not included above

PART B. College Experiences

This section focuses on leadership involvement during your college experience. Please answer these questions based on your **actual experiences**.

6. Please indicate whether or not you have participated in the following experiences <u>while in college,</u> including experiences at previous colleges.

	YES	NO

Have you participated in any **extracurricular organizations/clubs**? (University organizations, social or recreational organizations/clubs, religious or community-based organizations, etc.)?		
Have you participated in any **leadership training other than classwork** (i.e., Ambassador Retreat, State leadership experience, etc.)?		
Have you completed any **off-campus internships** (Including summer, 6 months, 9months, or other)?		
Have you participated in any **extracurricular activities with international students**?		

7. Please select the organizations/clubs' categories that you participated in while in college, including those at previous colleges. (Mark all that apply)

- ☐ The Student Council
- ☐ Judging or competitive teams
- ☐ Government of the Student Body
- ☐ University-related organizations/clubs
- ☐ Social or recreational organizations/clubs
- ☐ Faith or religious-based organizations
- ☐ Community-based organization
- ☐ The Greek system
- ☐ Not included above

8. Please select a drop-down list about your extracurricular activities while in College, including those at previous colleges?

Number of organizations/clubs you were actively involved	Amount of time spent per week
☐ 0 organizations/clubs	☐ 1 or less hour per week
☐ 1-2 organizations/clubs	☐ 2-3 hours per week
☐ 3-4 organizations/clubs	☐ 4-6 hours per week
☐ 5 or more organizations/clubs	☐ 7 or more hours per week

9. Please indicate the number of years you were active in the organization and your highest level of participation.

Number of years	Highest level of your participation
☐ 1 or less year	☐ Member
☐ 2 year	☐ Committee member
☐ 3 year	☐ Event or committee chair
☐ 4 year	☐ Officer or team captain
☐ 5 or more years	☐ State or national leadership

PART C. Leadership

The following 4 pages relate to leadership development. Please indicate the **extent to which you agree or disagree** with the following items by choosing the response that most closely represents your opinion about that statement.

10. Please indicate the degree to **which you agree or disagree** with the following items by choosing the

response that most closely represents your opinion about that statement.
For the statements that refer to a group, thinking of the **most effective, functional group** of which you have been a part. This might be a formal organization or informal study group. For consistency, Use the same group in all your response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am open to others' ideas.					
Creativity can come from conflict.					
I value differences in others.					
I am able to articulate my priorities					
Hearing differences in opinions enriches my thinking.					
I have low self-esteem					
I struggle when group members have ideas that are different than mine					
Transition makes me uncomfortable					
I am usually self-confident.					
I am seen as someone who works well with others					
Greater harmony can come out of disagreement					
I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things.					
My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs.					
I am committed to a collective purpose in those groups to which I belong.					
It is important to develop a common direction in a group to get anything done.					
I respect opinions other than my own.					
Change brings new life to an organization.					

11. Please indicate the degree to **which you agree or disagree**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
The things about which I feel passionate have priority in my life					
I contribute to the goals of the group.					
There is energy in doing something a new way.					
I am uncomfortable when someone disagrees with me.					
I know myself pretty well.					
I am willing to devote time and energy to					

things that are important to me.					
I sick with others through a difficult time.					
When there is a conflict between two people, one will win and the other will lose.					
Change makes me uncomfortable					
It is important for me to act on my beliefs.					
I am focused on my responsibilities.					
I can make a difference when I work with others on tasks.					
I actively listen to what others have to say.					
I think it important to know other people's priorities.					
My actions are consistent with my values.					
I believe I have responsibilities to my community.					
I could describe my personality.					

12. Please indicate the degree to **which you agree or disagree**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have helped to shape the mission of the group.					
New ways of doing things frustrate me.					
Common values drive an organization.					
I give time to making a difference for someone else.					
I work well in changing environments.					
I work with others to make my communities better places.					
I can describe how I am similar to other people.					
I enjoy working with others toward common goals.					
I am open to new ideas.					
I have the power to make a difference in my community.					
I look for new ways to do something.					
I am willing to act for the rights of others.					
I participate in activities that contribute to the common good.					
Others would describe me as a cooperative group member.					

I am comfortable with conflict.					
I can identify the differences between positive and negative change.					
I can be counted on to do my part.					

13. Please indicate the degree to **which you agree or disagree**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me					
I follow through on my promises.					
I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to.					
I believe myself I have a civic responsibility to the greater public.					
Self-reflection is difficult for me.					
Collaboration produces better results.					
I know the purpose of the groups to which I belong.					
I am comfortable expressing myself.					
My contributions are recognized by others in the groups I belong to.					
I work well when I know the collective values of a group.					
I share my ideas with others.					
My behaviors reflect my beliefs.					
I am genuine.					
I am able to trust the people with whom I work.					
I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community.					
I support what the group is trying to accomplish.					
It is easy for me to be truthful.					

PART D. High School Experiences

This is the last section. It focuses on **extracurricular** and **leadership** experiences before attending college.

14. Please indicate whether or not you participated in the following activities/events while in high school.

	YES	NO
Did you participate in **extracurricular activities** (including school and community activities)?		
Did you participate in any **leadership training** (i.e., 4-H officer training, student council training, chapter FFA officer retreat, etc.)?		

15. Please list the number of years you were extracurricular active in the organizations/clubs as well as your level of participation.

Number of years	Highest level of your participation
□ 1 or less year	□ Member
□ 2 year	□ Committee member
□ 3 year	□ Event or committee chair
□ 4 year	□ Officer or team captain
□ 5 or more years	□ State or national leadership

16. Looking back, how would you rate your leadership skills (compared to your peers) when you entered college?

- □ Well above average
- □ Above average
- □ Average
- □ Below average
- □ Well below average

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.

Beginning with Sustainability in Mind: A Study of Novice Principals' Perceptions of an Urban District Principal Mentoring Program

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Abstract

This case study sought to address how one principal mentoring program supported the development of eight novice elementary principals serving in a large Midwestern urban school district. Using semi-structured interviews, the novice principals described their experiences as participants in the urban district's mentoring program. Results indicated that novice principals benefit from a) formal mentoring programs, b) quality time with mentors, c) mentors with strong leadership experience, d) mentoring guidance with executing district policies and procedures allowing them to navigate job expectations, and e) a positive relationship with mentors that includes open communication.

Key words: educational administration, urban educational leadership development, novice principals, mentoring, mentorship, educational leadership

Introduction

The purpose of this narrative inquiry qualitative study was to examine the experiences and perceptions of novice elementary principals' experience in a large Midwestern urban district's first year principal mentoring program. As such, the study was guided by two questions: 1) What elements of the principal mentoring program did the principals perceive

prepared them for an urban principalship? 2)What value was in their relationship with their mentor? School principals are essential for providing strong school climates and improving student outcomes. And yet, even with national attention on the advancement of student outcomes, principal turnover is a national concern. A 2019 study by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and the Learning Policy Institute (LPI) reported five reasons principals leave their jobs, aside from retirement or dismissal (Levin & Bradley, 2019**):** inadequate preparation and professional development, poor working conditions, insufficient salaries, lack of decision-making authority, and ineffective accountability policies. Explored in this study and of interest to us was the first of the five identified causes for principal turnover, inadequate preparation and professional development, and support.

The NASSP and LPI report indicated that research consistently highlights the relationship between principal effectiveness and student success. It also highlighted the nation's consistent *underinvestment* in principal effectiveness with several studies finding correlations between principal turnover and student test score losses across grade levels and subjects. This is supported by Daresh's (2007) earlier argument that mentorship plays a critical role in strengthening school leadership. Changing educational reforms like teacher evaluations, school improvement guidelines, and high-stakes assessments provide little time for new principals to ease into their roles as instructional leaders (Whitaker, 2003). To that end, the significance of principal mentorship is important and attention to the effectiveness of mentoring programs is key to the development of strong school leaders at the beginning of their career to better prepare and sustain them throughout their career trajectory.

Arguably the apex of education reform is academic achievement. Large urban school districts have been especially scrutinized by stakeholders to increase student academic

performance. Urban school leaders are charged with the primary responsibility of closing the two identified achievement gaps of greatest concern. Darling-Hammond (2010) identified the first as the gap between white and more affluent students and students of color and those in poverty. The second is between U.S. students and those in other high-achieving nations that have made greater and more equitable investments in education over the last 30 years. Earlier, Nevarez and Wood (2007), determined that closing the achievement gap for low-performing, urban students can be a daunting task for new urban school leaders given students of color continue to lag behind their similarly situated others. Preparing leaders to competently address the multi-faceted disparity entails understanding poverty impacts, and the culture differences unique to urban sites, in addition to navigating ill-conceived discipline policies harmful to student learning outcomes.

The demands to address discipline and other non-academic barriers prevalent in what Milner (2012) describes as urban intensiveness, can deter highly qualified principal applicants from seeking employment in large urban school districts. Thus, these schools are often staffed with inexperienced teachers lacking instructional expertise, in high need of support. Trying to overcome many challenges, as a novice principal, can be unsettling and significantly influence their perception of their own effectiveness during their first few years as an urban school principals.

Novice principals unfamiliar with the challenges of urban social or cultural characteristics Noguera (2003) described as "relatively poor and, in many cases, non-white" (p. 23) must at the same time develop pedagogical skill. According to Hernandez and Kose (2012), "principals' understanding and skills pertaining to diversity are important in leading diverse schools and preparing all students for a democratic and multi-cultural society" (p.1). They furthered that becoming a culturally competent leader must be a fundamental aspect of school

principals' preparation and practice. While principal preparation programs are increasingly realizing the importance of culturally competent leadership, effective veteran principals are keenly aware of the need to know and understand the community they serve. Cultural incompetence can be countered by explicit modeling from an effective, experienced, and culturally sensitive mentor (Khalifa, 2020). Thus, the need for efficacious principal mentoring programs as principals transition from their formal training to serve in communities they are practicing is critical.

Scholars too have acknowledged that the mentorship of novice principals is a significant need in urban settings where poverty, minority students from disadvantaged backgrounds, and poor academic performance are prevalent (Banks & Banks, 2004). Daresh and Playko (1992) posited that a novice principal mentoring program could be an effective tool to help beginning principals survive their first few years. The current responsibilities encumbered by a school leader transcends beyond the school building, involving the school community, business partnerships, and other educational entities (Beard, 2021; Yirci & Kocabas, 2010). Balancing the numerous aspects and developing their instructional leadership skills through a strong mentoring program can help novice principals overcome many challenges faced during their first year on the job (Yirci & Kocabas, 2010). We sought novice principal's perception of their mentoring as informative for other districts seeking to equip first year administrators with the tools to succeed.

Literature Review

School effectiveness has been linked both tangentially and directly to school leadership yielding a variety of well researched leadership conceptualization from Fiedler's (1964) contingency model of leadership to instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), and more recently, relational and context centered leadership (Beard, 2018; Khalifa, 2020).

Leadership conceptualization matters in many ways however the effectiveness of school leadership continues to be measured by student performance. The focus of this work was not on any one specific leadership theory or model, but rather on the principal as learner in a mentoring relationship. While acknowledging district level support of novice principals, professional development and support programs have varying degrees of impact in preparing principals for the work of leading urban schools effectively. This study sought to explore what novice principals valued in their mentoring programs. As such, it employed social learning theory, self-determination theory, and adult learning to frame the knowledge base. A review of the background and elements of mentorship programs is also reviewed, as a framework.

Social Learning Theory

According to Thyers and Myers (1998), social learning theory explains human behavior as "what a person does, regardless of the observable nature of the phenomena" (p. 36). Bandura (1971), known as the founder of social learning theory, asserts that "virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experiences can occur on a vicarious basis through observation of other people's behavior and its consequences for them" (p. 2). This theory promotes the importance of modeling and underscores how individuals often feel unprepared for the workplace.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory posits that people have an inherent growth tendency (Vallerand, 2000) and asserts that peoples' innate psychological needs must be met first to foster self-motivation. Porter and Lawler (1968) suggest the work environment be restructured so that effective performance enables both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. These components together lead to better job satisfaction. In education, self-determination theory applies to different cultural

and institutional contexts and strives to understand and predict what energizes, directs, and sustains behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2009).

Adult Learning Theory

Adult learning theory is a popular and often utilized theoretical framework (Morris, 2019). Knowles, founder of adult learning theory, defines it "as the art and science of helping adults learn" (Merriam, 2001, p.5). This work was derived from the inquiry of whether adults could learn, especially compared to their younger counterparts (Merriam, 2001). Framed in behavioral research and learning theory, Knowles was the first to construct adult learning as different from child learning (Merriam, 2001). Knowles argues that adult learning theory is comprised of a set of working assumptions which Holton et al. (2001) explains as:

- adult learners need to understand the purpose of learning,
- there needs to be a correlation between adults' self-concept and a move toward self-direction,
- a learner's prior experiences are essential and provide rich resources for learning,
- readiness to learn hinges on adult learners being faced with a performance task or life situation,
- adults' orientation to learning is life-centered, and
- adult learning is internal and self-directed.

These six assumptions were constructed to best explain how adults learn in the workplace. These theories share characteristics that validate the context of learning in collaboration rather than isolation and together frame the need for a supportive and reassuring learning environment. Augustine et al. (2016) suggests that “having someone to share issues and concerns in a confidential setting is paramount to the new principal’s success” (p. 10). To that end, time must

be provided for new principal mentees to observe veteran professionals in their work, experience both internal and external motivators to continue growing in their practice, and understand their learning needs as adults. According to Crocker & Harris (2002), working closing with experienced mentors positions novice principals to find success as they embark on their leadership careers. This underscores the importance of districts adopting and implementing principal mentoring program for principals.

Mentorship as a Framework

There is evidence that connects effective school leadership and student achievement (Dutta & Sahney, 2016). To support the instructional leadership of novice principals, an inherent need for effective mentors has led to the research, and development of principal mentoring programs across the nation. Considering the complicated work Hoy and Miskel (2013) describe as “feverish and consuming” (p. 428), a new principal must learn early how to manage effectively. A systemic and structured support system is vital to sustaining a beginning principal's success. Augustine et al. (2016) asserted that "principals need high quality mentoring and professional development in their first year accompanied by contextually specific strategies to understand the values of the school community and serve the school community effectively” (p. 11). Professional development is key to a school leader’s success because "school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning” (Leithwood et al., 2020, p. 5). Scholars agree that school leadership positively influences teaching and learning and is vital to the success of school improvement efforts (Hattie, 2008; Seashore Louis, 2010). With the expectation that a shift is made from principal as manager to instructional leader, it is critical that aspiring principals become more centered on leading learning communities that facilitate change (Crocker & Harris, 2002). To this end, the literature supports the argument that mentorship, by

effective veteran principals, plays a critical role in strengthening school leadership (Gumus, 2019).

Elements of a Mentorship Program in K-12

Gumus (2019) investigated a K-12 mentorship program implemented in Georgia. Mentorship in this study designed for elementary and middle school principals was an integral part of the novice principal's professional development and facilitated by an experienced principal. Gumus (2019) suggested that this opportunity was the most significant type of professional development. In Georgia, the mentorship program prioritized specific characteristics that mentors should possess to qualify for the mentorship program. Qualities identified as significant for mentors to possess include good listening skills, strong communication skills, reflectiveness, and compassion. Mentor training was also an essential component of Georgia's principal mentoring program (Gumus, 2019).

One successful indicator outlined by Georgia's systemic plan was a decreased feeling of isolation by the mentee. A reduced sense of isolation could be attributed to the mentee's responsibility to schedule monthly on-site visits with their mentor. The mentee also had unlimited access to their mentor, with the autonomy to call or text their mentor whenever they had a question or encountered a challenge. An evaluative component of the systemic plan included a pre-survey administered to the mentees to determine their areas of strength and weakness. Information from these surveys were then used to inform professional learning opportunities for the mentee and strategic action plans were developed on topics such as evaluation, school achievement, data analysis, time-management, and instructional leadership. Together, the elements of this mentorship program provided necessary supports for novice principals.

Methods

In this case study we sought to understand experiences of eight novice principals who participated in a first-year principal mentoring program. We were specifically interest was which elements of the program they perceived prepared them well for urban school principalship and how they perceived their relationship with their assigned mentor. To best explore the novice principal's perceptions of their program and relationship with mentors, two general questions guided the study:

1. What elements of the principal mentoring program were identified by principals in the program as preparing them for the principalship in an urban district?
2. What was the perception of a novice principal's relationship with their district assigned mentor in a principal mentoring program?

Study Participants

Purposeful sampling based on specific criteria was used. The principals needed to be practicing leaders at the elementary school level, having had recently completed the district's mentoring program. To ensure a wide and diverse pool of applicants, participants were sought from different regions within this large Mid-western urban district. Participant recruitment began during the summer of 2020. Following IRB and the Urban district's approval, the district Superintendent's designee identified ten elementary principals to participate in the study. An email sent to these principals yielded eight administrators willing to participate in the study. All participants represented the initial criteria of: 1) being an elementary school administrator, 2) having participated in the program within the last three years, and 3) serving in various regions of the urban district. Table 1 details additional participant demographics.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participant	Gender	Years Removed From Program
A	M	3
B	F	1
C	F	2
D	F	2
E	F	1
F	F	2
G	M	3
H	F	1

Note. In an effort to maintain integrity and anonymity within a small sample size, participant races are not identified in conjunction with gender. The identified participant racial composition was two (25% Caucasian), with one identifying as Latinx-non-black, and six (75%) African American or Black. The percentage of Black administrators is high when compared to the 19% as reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Characteristics of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in the United States: Results From the 2015–16 National Teacher and Principal Survey First Look (NCES 2017-071) retrieved from: https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017070.pdf. It is important to note that while this report is the most current, it does not disaggregate elementary principals from secondary. The number of urban elementary principals could be higher than 19%.

Although no personal connections existed between the researchers and participants, and no one was in an evaluative position over the participants, the researchers (as described in Table 2) did serve as mentors to novice principals and had participated in mentorship programs to varying degrees.

Table 2

Researcher Descriptions

Researcher	Race	Gender	K-12 Experience	Credentials	Mentoring Experience
#1	Black	F	Teacher, Administrator, Ed.D. in Ed Admin	Urban Principal	Principal for three Urban Schools Mentor to Novice Urban Principals
#2	Caucasian	M	Teacher,	Suburban Principal	Developed a suburban district's

			Administrator, Assistant Professor, Ph.D. in Ed Admin	Superintendent	new leaders mentor program Official mentor to five head principals and eight assistant principals Director of secondary education mentoring and overseeing eight high school and middle school principals Head principal overseeing new hires
#3	Black	F	Teacher, Administrator, Associate Professor, Ph.D., in Ed Admin	Urban Principal Superintendent	Urban Leadership Cadet Program Assistant Coordinator of Summer Superintendent Program 7 years as head Principal overseeing new hires in three urban schools

These multi experienced perspectives brought professional teacher and administrator practitioner understandings to their roles as (seasoned) researchers.

Several additional measures were adopted to address the problem of undermining the study with bias or justifying interpretations to intentionally employ trustworthiness and credibility (Creswell, 2014). To maximize trustworthiness Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria were established during the research process: credibility, described as the researchers confidence in the truth revealed in the results, transferability, described as the degree to which the results

were applicable in other contexts, dependability, described as consistent and repetitive results, and conformability, described as results that were objective and shaped by the participants' narratives rather than the researchers' bias. Prioritizing these criteria served as an impetus to setting a fair and equitable environment for all participants throughout the study.

Data Collection

Data collection began in August (Autumn semester) of the following academic year. In light of COVID-19 safety protocols, and with respect for the principal's time and capacity, interviews were conducted via Zoom. Zoom provided transcription useful for analysis. The semi-structured interviews were conducted via a virtual platform, each lasting approximately one hour. Participants reviewed, discussed, and signed consent forms prior to starting their interviews. To maintain research quality, participant responses were transcribed and then member checked (Charmaz, 2014; Glesne, 2016) for accuracy. Triangulation was achieved through interview member check, coding, and data comparison for validation.

Data Analysis

Analysis began in December and results were verified in March. Each of the eight participants (described in Table 1) were interviewed once. After interviews were conducted, the transcripts were analyzed. To initiate the process, researchers collaborated in review of the transcripts. In this initial process, codes were created. Applying an iterative coding process (Maxwell, 2012), researchers read through the transcripts multiple times refining and verifying the coding scheme until codes were mutually exclusive (Creswell, 2014). After the initial manual coding, the qualitative analysis software program NVIVO (QSR International, 2020) was used to compare codes. Researchers reviewed both manual and software codes to identify patterns in analyses. These patterns led to the development of common (emergent) themes across participant

interviews. As themes emerged, the findings were connected back to the research questions undergirding this study.

Findings

While the study was guided by the questions designed to explore what elements the principals perceived prepared them for urban principalship and what they perceived as valuable in their relationship with their mentor, the second inquiry was addressed in the exploration of the first. Essentially, the mentees appreciated and valued the quality time spent with their mentors as thy sorted out challenges presented in their first year. This section details the five emergent themes participants found to be important reflective of the main inquiry of the study. Novice principals benefit from a) formal mentoring programs, b) quality time with mentors, c) mentors with strong leadership experience, d) mentor guidance with executing district policies and procedures, and e) a positive relationship with mentors that includes open communication.

Formal Mentoring Programs

Understanding experiences of a novice principal is key to identifying the elements of a quality principal mentoring program. This information is key for districts as they craft principal mentoring programs in large urban districts. The consensus among participants was a formally structured mentoring program would be more beneficial than an informal mentoring model. Based on participant responses, a formal mentoring program should include objectives, goals, and timelines. For instance, one participant shared, “I was just told that I would have a mentor, but there was never an orientation at the start of the year.” The participant expressed the absence of a formal structure created more challenges as a first-year leader. Regardless of participant gender or number of years removed from the program, novice principals agreed that a program’s

objectives, goals, and timelines should be clearly communicated during the orientation process to increase their understanding and maximize program effectiveness.

Quality Time with Mentors

Quality time, described by participants as availability to one's mentor when needed, was a common barrier discussed by novice principals during the interview process. Novice principals identified a significant responsibility of the mentor was to ensure the novice principal had adequate time with them. When time between the mentor and the mentee was compromised, the capacity to manage day-to-day building challenges was cited as an obstacle. The study also underscored that novice principals who spent more time with their mentor described a better work-life balance. This was corroborated by one participant who expressed, "Having more one on one time with my mentor was needed. A balance between outside work, lack of follow through from the program itself, and the consistency was a weakness." This was significant to a novice principal's first year on the job because work-life balance, according to participants, promoted a healthier outlook on the principal role. To this end, novice principals who were satisfied with the amount of time they spent with their experienced mentor felt more productive on the job.

Mentors with Strong Leadership Experience

Understanding that school leadership is a significant factor contributing to what students learn at school, supports the importance of an effective principal in every school. In addition to principal training programs, being paired with mentors with strong experience as effective urban school leaders had a direct impact on first year principals and emerged as a key element to a quality mentorship program. This study's findings uncovered a mentor model was essential for today's urban novice school leader. All the participants expressed a significant benefit to having

an experienced mentor to guide and support them during their first year on the job. This sentiment was described by one participant, "Having my mentor see me in my first-year setting was helpful to meeting my individual needs as a first-year principal." Participants cited how important an experienced mentor was to a novice principal's confidence in their new role and attributed to their increased understanding of being an urban school leader.

Mentors with a plethora of leadership experience are also positioned to give constructive feedback. All participants spoke passionately about how critical the experienced mentor's guidance was on the novice principal's leadership development. One participant shared how mentor feedback influenced her ability to maximize her leadership potential, "I could then ask for feedback on what I could do as a mentee to grow and where I should focus my time. I felt that was really useful." All participants expressed the significance of an experienced mentor's feedback to meet the demands and challenges of the urban school leader. Feedback provided to a novice principal increased the mentee's effectiveness in the role, improved their level of confidence, and positively impacted their growth and development.

Mentor Guidance with Executing District Policies and Procedures

Information leading to an increased understanding of district policies and procedures emerged as a significant element to a quality mentoring program in this study. Findings emphasized the responsibility of experienced principals to inform novice principals on school system policies and procedures as a priority. Novice principals spoke passionately about the need to understand district policies and procedures, extant of gender or number of years in the role, in order to effectively navigate their job responsibilities. One participant stressed, "The mentoring program helped me to learn operational procedures of the district like in-school suspension, attendance, and enrollment procedures." Novice principals who felt ill-informed on district

policy cited difficulty in managing the responsibilities of a first-year urban school leader. Additionally, lack of access to district resources, including digital binders and monthly to-do lists, was identified as a workplace stressor.

Participants' responses revealed a desire to be provided resources that kept them abreast of upcoming deadlines and promoted task-oriented leadership skills. "Access to an elementary digital binder or timeline of important events would have strengthened the mentoring program's objectives," one participant explained. It was evident that unclear expectations of district policies and procedures posed a challenge for novice principals and was cited by participants as a barrier to responding proactively to the daily demands of the principalship. An experienced mentor able to provide novice principals with information on important policies and procedures was discussed by participants as critical to promoting autonomy and independence in the workplace.

Positive Relationships with Mentors that Includes Open Communication

Most participants talked positively about their work environment in association with a positive relationship with their mentors. Participants' indicated relationships with their mentors had a major impact on their first-year experience. Relationships, described by participants as a positive, professional working relationship with an experienced mentor were essential to the success of the novice principal. Novice principals described a more positive attitude when paired with a supportive mentor. One principal captured the essence of her relationship with her mentor stating, "We were mutually supportive of each other." Novice principals who felt supported by an experienced mentor also shared a feeling of longevity in the principalship.

A positive mentor and mentee relationship helped novice principals feel more prepared to handle the demands of the job, accomplish short-term goals, and continue a level of excitement about future growth in the role. Novice principals in the study talked about how a positive

relationship with their district assigned mentor exceeded expectations and eventually transitioned from a professional relationship to a personal relationship. Lastly, although not a standalone theme, the importance of communication, described by participants as open and consistent, was nested under positive relationships between mentors and mentees. Participants expressed how important it was for them to be able to communicate their challenges to their mentors so in-turn those mentors could help support the development of leadership skills in more explicit ways. For instance, one participant stated, "I could just pick up the phone to talk with my mentor at any time." This open line of communication was key for participants to work through challenges in a timely, and safe, manner. In conclusion, participants who experienced consistent and open communication with their experienced mentor appeared to have a better outlook on their first-year principal assignment and seemed more confident in their perceived level of preparedness to meet the job responsibilities.

Concluding Discussion

Literature on the benefits of principal mentoring programs underscore a positive relationship between principal mentoring programs and instructional leadership (Augustine et al., 2016). Educational reform initiatives that include principal mentoring programs are integral to the development of novice urban school leaders. While this study adds to the literature supporting transformative learning and mentoring in the principalship, its relevance lies in the fact mentoring is a critical component of preparation and can have a positive impact on an aspiring principal's learning process (Bickmore et al., 2019). They furthered that "few researchers have explicitly examined the benefits to practicing principals engaged in mentoring aspiring principals" (p. 235).

The findings of this study suggest that if urban school districts want to ensure principal effectiveness sustainability over time, districts administrators should consider requiring novice principals to participate in first year principal mentoring programs to support their growth as leaders. Specifically, the mentoring program design should incorporate careful mentor selection, e.g., mentors with strong leadership experience and able to specifically support mentees execute district policies and procedures, and allow for the organic positive relationships that develop with open communication and dedicated time. Requiring novice principals to be mentored in this way could not only decrease principal turnover, noted as a national problem, but also increase the number of applicants interested in urban school district leadership (Mascall & Leithwood, 2010). It would most certainly and ultimately better inform and equip urban principals' sustainability and career trajectory, from the beginning.

Note: This article represents the doctoral work of Dr. Rhonda Nichelle Peeples. Dr. Peeples was a Columbus City Principal who passed away unexpectedly during the publication process. Knowing Nikki's dedication and passion for this topic, Drs. Beard and Miller worked on this manuscript for publication to posthumously honor Nikki and all of the good she brought to bear on K-12 urban education in the state of Ohio.

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Women Leaders in Ohio Schools: A Statewide Analysis of the Typology of Female Superintendents

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Abstract

This study investigated the typology of female and male superintendents in Ohio to determine if a difference exists in the typology of female superintendents when compared to their male counterparts. Theories of gender differences and leadership styles, role congruity theory, and transformational leadership provided the framework for this study. The quantitative research design focused on a descriptive analysis of data. The sample was comprised of all school superintendents in the state of Ohio; a total of 614 participants. However, it is important to note that the study looked at males versus females, so while the sample size for males topped 518, the sample size for females was 96, a 15.64% confidence value. The findings demonstrate the under-representation of females in the superintendency, fewer women in each typology, clusters of female superintendents in particular regions of the state, and a higher percentage of females in the Big 8 districts. Implications of these findings are discussed and suggestions for future research given.

The latter half of the 20th century revealed a significant rise in women's involvement in the workforce (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). By 1999, women constituted 60% of all workers in the United States, a statistic that has held steadily into the 21st century. Women continued to excel in other areas as well. Educational attainment for women ages 25 to 64 showed upward trends with 11% holding bachelor's degrees or higher in 1970 to 42% in 2016; in comparison, men's attainment of college degrees had doubled in that same time span. Men ages 25 to 64 showed upward trends with 15.7% holding bachelor's degrees or higher in 1970 to 36.2% in 2016.

Despite constituting over half the workforce, women continue to lag behind men in leadership positions. In the 21st century, women were trapped in lower-level management positions, where upward mobility was less likely to occur (Lang, 2010). Similar equity issues exist in the educational world as the progress of upward movement for aspiring women leaders continues to move at a slow pace. Women teachers represent 72% of the educational workforce and 54% of elementary principals, but only 24% hold the position of school superintendent (Domenech, 2012). The school superintendent plays one of the most influential roles in a school community; all qualified leaders should be considered, and no one individual should be excluded based on race or gender.

It is evident that discrimination exists in the position of superintendent. Eliminating discrimination in hiring practices may be one possible solution to the shortage of superintendents (Brunner & Kim, 2010; Glass & Kowalski, 2003). School districts need to strive for representative proportionality to females in the education field. Hunt et al. (2018) noted that companies with diverse executive teams outperform other by 21% and are more likely to be profitable (27%). Through a close analysis of the district location and typology that currently

employ female superintendents, conclusions can be drawn to break down existing barriers and eliminate discrimination for females aspiring to the superintendency.

While it might be easy to argue that statistics support a figurative *glass ceiling*, data exist to support that there is a real glass ceiling with respect to women obtaining the role of superintendent. A review of current literature is void of any research specifically comparing the district typology between female and male superintendents. This study will address that gap in the literature. This study will investigate the typology of female and male superintendents in Ohio to determine if a difference exists in the typology of female superintendents when compared to their male counterparts.

This study was designed to identify the types of positions female superintendents secure related to region and district typology. This was done by examining the following research questions:

1. In which district typographies are male and female superintendents employed?
2. What regions in Ohio are female superintendents employed?
3. What counties are female superintendents employed?
4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between gender and district typographies for male and female superintendents in Ohio?

Examination of these questions provides insight for aspiring superintendents allowing them to better understand the current barriers in place for females in Ohio related to district region and typology.

Theoretical Framework

This theoretical framework is prompted by the under-representation of women in educational leadership positions; specifically, the superintendency. Theories of gender

differences and leadership styles, role congruity theory, and transformational leadership provided the framework for this study. The theory that may underlie this issue may be skewed perceptions of the role of women and women's leadership abilities.

Gender Differences and Leadership Style

Gender role identity defines a stereotypical individual self-perception as masculine or feminine that encompasses traits that are regarded the standard for each sex in society (Saint-Michel, 2018; Wood & Eagly, 2009). In this model, gender identity content is framed in terms of agency and communion. Men are expected to display agentic characteristics, such as assertiveness, striving for achievement and competitiveness. In contrast, women are expected to display communal characteristics, including a caring, compassionate, and thoughtful nature for others (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Saint-Michel, 2018). When female leaders demonstrate the agentic requirements of their leadership role and fail to show the collective behaviors more associated with women, female leaders can be negatively judged for exerting male- associated actions.

For decades, most leadership positions were held by men, creating an understanding of leadership based on stereotypical views (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). "Traits related to leadership are not culturally universal, and . . . because traits have an impact on the way that men and women are perceived as leaders, gender can affect access to leadership positions" (Ayman & Korabik, 2010, p. 162). For women such access can be hindered when decision-makers rely heavily on perceived leadership characteristics based on a stereotypic view of leadership.

Emphasizing the differences between males and females has served as a way to classify the roles of individuals based on gender; thus, boys and girls are expected to gain gender-specific skills or develop self- concepts based on the male and female characteristics defined by the

culture in which they live (Bem, 1981). Societies differ on the specific tasks they give to men and women; however, all societies assign adult roles based on gender and typically pass associated beliefs on to their children. "The process by which a society transmutes male and female into masculine and feminine is known as the process of sex typing, . . . and as children learn the contents of the society's gender schema, they learn which attributes are linked with their own sex, hence, with themselves" (Bem, 1981, pp. 354–355). Sex-typed individuals are not seen for the degree of masculinity or femininity they possess, but whether or not their self-concepts and behaviors are based on gender. Despite changes in male and female roles and changes in the workforce, the desirability ratings have remained constant because "respondents still believed that traditional images of what traits are desirable 'for a man' and 'for a woman' . . . in contemporary American society" (Auster & Ohm, 2000, p. 526).

Stereotyping has become an influential and unseen threat to women in the workplace and a main cause of gender gaps in leadership given the perceived qualities of masculine and feminine leadership qualities (Kellerman & Rhode, 2017). Male leaders are commonly stereotyped with actions, ambitions, confidence, assertiveness, independence, rationality, decisiveness, domination, intimidation and risk assessment. On the contrary, female leaders are typically stereotyped with expressiveness, concern for others, acceptance, patience, sensitivity, warmth, compassion, helpfulness, nurturance, conformity and attention to detail. While assertiveness and ambition is seen as favorable for men, it is unfavorable for women; physical attractiveness is more beneficial to women's success and showing emotions is equally harmful to both men and women.

Role Congruity Theory

Ben coined the term *androgynous* to refer to individuals who employed both masculine and feminine psychological characteristics (Bem, 1981). According to Bem, within each individual, there is a ratio of masculine and feminine traits, and an ideal picture is actualized when they are balanced and interchangeable. If we are talking about an androgynous female, she would embody the necessary masculine behavior at work: setting goals, defending her interests, achieving results while simultaneously focusing on people. All the while she is understanding, sensitive and affectionate with family and friends. An androgynous male's behavior would incorporate flexibility and implement both assertiveness and acceptance, domination and collaboration, risk behavior and cautiousness, giving and receiving.

Some individuals do not fit the traditional distinction of gender stereotyped leadership roles. According to role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) there is a role incongruity between their role and gender archetype for example despite being female, they display stereotypical agentic or masculine traits or, conversely, despite being male, they display stereotypical communal or feminine characteristics (Kark, Waismel-Manor &Shamir, 2012; Larsen & Long, 1988; Saint-Machel, 2018). However, the stereotype of the successful leader is still defined in masculine terms (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell & Ristikari, 2011; Saint-Michel, 2018) highlighted by the cliché *Think male – Think leader* (Schein, 1975).

Gender and Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers to go beyond their own self-interests in order to serve the values and goals of the collective by raising their level of awareness (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders display communal orientations, because they are inclined to highlight the importance of cooperation and

interdependence between group members in order to attain team goals, are considerate and benevolent towards their followers, practice shared decision-making, and highlight the importance of interpersonal interactions, which are often stereotyped as female traits (Applebaum, Audet, & Miller, 2003. Eagly, 2003; Fletcher, 2004; Kark et al., 2012; Poddar & Kirshnan, 2004).

Agentic and communal attributes have been used to describe the differences in leadership styles between men and women (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Park (1996) investigated the relationship between leader gender identity and two leadership styles, described as task-oriented and relationship-oriented. The findings suggested a significant positive relationship between communal traits and the transformational leadership style, and between agentic traits and task-oriented leadership. Agentic attributes, associated more with men than women, include "assertive, ambitious, self-confident, and forceful. . . . In employment settings these behaviors might include speaking assertively, influencing others, and making problem-solving suggestions" (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 783). Communal attributes, associated more with women than men, involve the welfare of others and include "affectionate, helpful, interpersonally sensitive, and nurturing. . . . In employment settings these behaviors might include speaking tentatively, supporting others, and contributing to the solution of relational and interpersonal problems" (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 783). According to Eagly et al., transformational leadership is more associated with female leadership traits (2003).

Review of Literature

Women constitute over half the talent pool in education, so why are they missing in the school superintendency (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006)? The ongoing absence of women leading our nation's public schools has prompted researchers to investigate the reasons that so few of them

have attained the top job (Brown, 2014; Davis & Bowers, 2019; Kim & Brunner, 2009; Wyland, 2016). Although the field of education is dominated by women in teaching positions, more men hold higher leadership positions (central office and higher administration) than women.

When women are able to break through these barriers to ascend to the superintendency, district typology can play an important factor. Nationally, women are more likely than males to work in rural districts (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006a). When considering district typology, 60% of females serve in rural districts (Lemasters & Roach, 2012; Rogers & McCord, 2020). These statistics can change depending on race and ethnicity. Robinson et al. (2017) found that statistics of female superintendents working in rural districts was only accurate for white women; women of color were more likely to serve in larger school districts than white women. This implies that women of color are more likely to serve in urban or suburban districts as they are generally larger in size. Women, no matter their race or ethnicity, are more likely than males to serve in communities with more diverse populations, populations that include more students with disabilities, and populations that include more homeless students (Robinson et al., 2017). Females serve as superintendent in districts perceived as higher need whether that district be urban or rural.

The high visibility of leaders within a rural community contributes to the lack of equality in hiring; typically, men are seen as being dominant, powerful, and visible members of the community (Edgehouse, 2008). Therefore, a woman entering a rural district as superintendent must already display several leadership characteristics to be gain recognition. In a study by Palladino et al. (2016), eleven female superintendents who were in their first appointment of less than five years were recruited for a qualitative case study. Each woman participated in a semi-structured interview, answering questions regarding: “How do rural female superintendents (1)

implement and sustain change, (2) describe their leadership style, (3) build relationships, and (4) seek out professional support and mentors? (Palladino et al., 2016, p. 43).” A significant finding was the theme of relationship building as a key leadership quality for rural female superintendents. Meaningful relationships help to build connections with community members, staff, school boards, and stakeholders. However, this can be a limitation to women moving into administrative positions due the close-knit relationships that are already formed within the school district.

In addition to visibility barriers, minority administrators must also deal with the needs of the students in the district. Gender also impacts student achievement of minorities. For example, when the majority of students enrolled in the school district are diverse and come from impoverished neighborhoods, superintendents who have congruent intersectionalities may better serve their students. Brown (2012) found that when African American boys who live in poverty learn from an African American male administrator, who can identify with being a minority and a male, student achievement rates increase. When intersectionalities and genders are incongruent, superintendents appear to be less influential role models (Brown, 2012). A female, African American administrator entering a rural district may not only be seen be her gender, but also her racial identity. In a multiple-case study using a phenomenological approach (Sweatt, 2018), African American teachers were interviewed about their perceptions of previously being a teacher in a predominately White rural school in Central Appalachia. A total of six teachers were interviewed in Eastern Kentucky. Similarly to Palladino et al.’s (2016) study of female superintendents, African American, female teachers also identified that relationships contributed to their success. Sweatt (2018) describes that, “Half of them identified instances of isolation, alienation, or marginalization at the school level, while the other half reported that they were

accustomed to the culture and thus did not identify their experiences as unusual" (p. 101). This suggests that African American, female teachers and administrators, are sometimes torn between feeling out of place instead of being used to being treated unequally in a rural district. Therefore, the African American teachers identified the need for adaptation, support systems, communication, self-motivation, and beneficial employment factors (Sweatt, 2018). When these needs are in place, female gendered, minority administrators are more apt to promote student achievement through making valuable, connective support systems; female administrators, who are also minority, may use one section of their identity (either racial or gendered) to become an appealing leader.

It is important to consider district typology because of the impacts that it has on the leader. Dowell (2012) found that females experienced lower salaries than males when considering rural, suburban, and urban typologies. These results were most significant in urban districts with a difference of male salaries between $135,000-$144,999 and female salaries between $105,000 and $114,999 (Dowell, 2012). This explains that there is a gender gap between the salaries of male and female superintendents, but it also explains that the range is further impacted by district typology.

Methods

The quantitative research design focused on a descriptive analysis of data. We examined the differences between male and female superintendents' district typology. We used ex post facto data to identify the sample size for both males and females as well as to determine the typology of each participant. The independent variable was the gender of the superintendent; the dependent variable was the typology of each school district. This study does not introduce a

treatment, program, or intervention; the study simply observed existing patterns found within the data.

Participants

The population in this study was comprised of all school superintendents in the state of Ohio; a total of 614 participants. The main criterion for the sampling in this study was that the participant was currently serving as a superintendent in a public-school system during the 2018-2019 school year. According to Fowler (2009), to ensure a 95% confidence interval, the study needed to consist of 584 participants. Since all participants included on the EMIS report are, by default, in the study, the sample size can ensure the 95% confidence interval with an error of 3.96%. However, it is important to note that the study looked at males versus females, so while the sample size for males topped 518, the sample size for females was 96, a 15.64% confidence value. The high confidence value associated with the female population means that the study is not generalizable, since one cannot add female participants where they do not already exist. The large sample size, in this case over six hundred participants, is representative of the target population.

Validity

In this study, the sample size impacts external validity, specifically the fact that the sample comes from ex post facto data. The large representative sample size in this study, 614 school superintendents, means the external validity for this study was high. However, the sample size might be generalizable for persons in educational administration, the sample might not apply to all women and men in the workforce. According to Trochim and Donnelly (2008), threats to external validity in this study include, "…people, places, and time" (p. 36). This study took place in one state, with one year's worth of data, on a specific, not randomly selected, population.

Data Collection

The Education Management Information System (EMIS) is the statewide data collection system used by the Ohio Department of Education to gather and store information relative to secondary and primary public-school districts. The school district IRN was used for the purpose of generating demographic data relative to school district typology and provided the following data variables: district name, county, typology, enrollment, median income, percent student poverty, and percent minority. In addition, the gender of superintendents for each district was collected from the Buckeye Association of School Administrators; however, no individual identifying information was used in the analysis. All data was combined into one data file for organizational purposes. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to gather and analyze data.

The purpose of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. In which district typographies are male and female superintendents employed?
2. What regions in Ohio are female superintendents employed?
3. What counties are female superintendents employed?
4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between gender and district typographies for male and female superintendents in Ohio?

Definition of Variables

The following defined variables were used within the data collection process and analysis:

District Identifiers. Districts were identified by district name and county within the state of Ohio.

Typology. The Ohio Department of Education developed a classification system on district typology to "classify like districts together based on shared demographic and geographic

characteristics" (ODE, 2013, Typology of Ohio School Districts section, para. 2). Data in the current analysis was coded for congruency with corresponding classification numbers identified by the Ohio Department of Education (ODE, 2013).

Enrollment. The Ohio Department of Education states that *enrollment* "shows the number of public-school students in grades K-12 plus preschool handicapped students attending school buildings in the district at any point during the course of the school year on FTE basis" (ODE, 2013, A- Demographic Data section, para. 4).

Student Poverty. *Student poverty* is the "percentage of students flagged as economically disadvantaged" and "measures the poverty rate of students actually attending the school district" (ODE, 2013, p. 3).

Data Analysis and Results

A list of potential participants was identified from directory information provided by the Ohio Department of Education and crosschecked with directory information from the Buckeye Association of School Administrators. There were 614 superintendents with 518 male and 96 female within the sample, suggesting a lack of female superintendents in Ohio at only 15.6% of the total population. The data analysis section provides an overview of the typologies where female school superintendents are employed in the state of Ohio. In addition, a review of data collection and data analysis appears. SPSS was used to analysis the data.

Research Question 1

Descriptive statistics were used to determine in which district typographies male and female superintendents are employed. The databased was sorted by typology code and by female superintendent to cluster female superintendents by district type. Table 1 provides the typology codes along with the total number of school districts in each area. The second to last column

shows the number of female superintendents in each category. The last column shows the percentage of females within the typology.

The distribution of male and female superintendents in Ohio varies based on district typology, which is demonstrated using codes assigned by the Ohio Department of Education (2013). There is a significant disproportion of male superintendents versus female superintendents in Ohio districts. Male superintendents represent between 62.5- 86% percent of each district typology coding, leaving female superintendents to represent only 12.15-37.5% of each typology. In district typologies where there are fewer total amounts of superintendents (e.g. 5 total superintendents in typology code 0, and 8 total superintendents in typology code 8), females represent a greater percentage of superintendents (20% and 37.5% respectively). Data distribution also suggests that female superintendents have more representation in suburban and urban districts (district typology codes 6, 7, 8). Therefore, male superintendents dominate special, rural, and small-town districts (district typology codes 0, 1, 2, 3, 4).

Table 1

Ohio School District Typology and School Superintendents

District Typology Code	Major Grouping	Full Descriptor	Districts Within Typology	No. Female Superintendents	% Females within Typology
0		Special Districts	NA	NA	NA
1	Rural	Rural- High Student Poverty & Small Student Population	124	18	14.51

2	Rural	Rural- Average Student Poverty & Very Small Student Population	107	13	12.15
3	Small Town	Small Town- Low Student Poverty & Small Student Population	111	15	13.51
4	Small Town	Small Town- High Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	89	14	15.73
5	Suburban	Suburban- Low Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	77	14	18.18
6	Suburban	Suburban- Very Low Student Poverty & Large Student Population	46	8	17.39

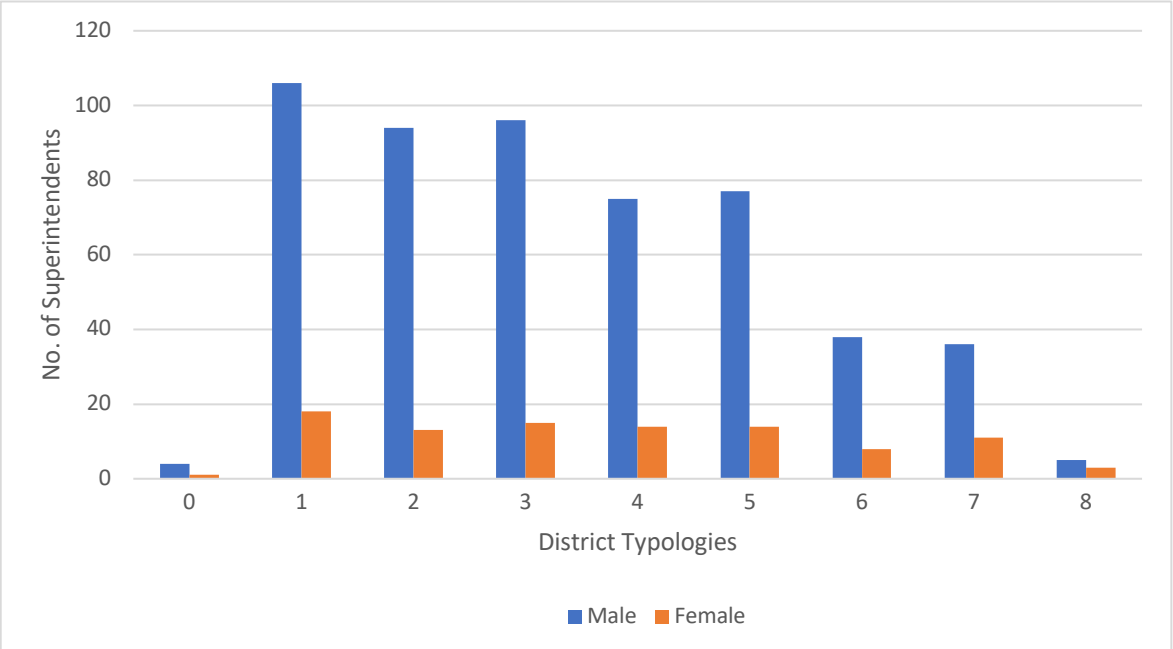
7	Urban	Urban- High Student Poverty & Average Student Population	47	11	23.40
8	Urban	Urban- Very High Student Poverty & Very Large Student Population	8	3	37.50

Note. This figure displays the coding classification system used within the present study based on the Ohio Department of Education (2013) District Typology Coding.

The bar chart shown in Figure 1 depicts the typology of districts between male and female superintendents.

Figure 1

District Typologies between Male and Female Superintendents



Note. This figure shows the number of male and female superintendents by district typology, based on the Ohio Department of Education (2013) District Typology Coding.

Research Question 2

To determine the regions in Ohio where female superintendents were employed, we plotted their location by county from the directory database (Figure 2) and retrieved some interesting findings. We found that female school superintendents clustered in the southwestern and northeastern parts of the state. Counties located in central, northwest, and southeastern regions of Ohio showed very few females employed as superintendents.

Figure 2 illustrates the locations of female school superintendents employed in Ohio during the 2019–2020 school year, specifically the number and percentage of female superintendents in each county. The number noted in each county represents the total number of female superintendents employed in that county, and the number in parentheses represents the percentage of female school superintendents in each county relative to the total number of school superintendents employed.

Figure 2

Female Superintendents by County

Results indicate that although some counties, such as Cuyahoga and Hamilton, employed seven and six female superintendents, respectively, overall, women still represent only 23% and 27% of all superintendents in those counties. Other counties like Jefferson and Clermont show a lower number of female superintendents; however, women represent 60% and 44% percent of all superintendents in those counties.

Research Question 3

Descriptive statistics were used to look at the employment of female superintendents in the *Big 8 School Districts* in Ohio. Ohio's eight urban districts include: Akron, Canton, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo, and Youngstown. Out of the eight urban districts, 37.5% were led by female superintendents. This higher percentage indicates that women are proportionally more likely to serve in a large urban district in Ohio.

Next we investigated the relationship between big eight district and percentage of female superintendents in the county, shown in Table 2. This demonstrates that females are more likely to serve as superintendent in school districts located within counties that also have a large urban district. Counties with Cincinnati, Toledo, Cleveland, and Columbus, are the most likely to have districts with female superintendents.

Table 2

Big 8 Districts by County and Gender

Big 8 District	Superintendent Gender	County	% Female Superintendents
Akron	Male	Summit	12%
Canton	Male	Stark	12%
Cincinnati	Female	Hamilton	27%
Cleveland	Male	Cuyahoga	23%
Columbus	Female	Franklin	19%
Dayton	Female	Montgomery	13%
Toledo	Male	Lucas	25%
Youngstown	Male	Mahoning	7%

Research Question 4

Chi-Square was the best statistical method to determine what observed frequencies were significantly different than the expected frequencies (Salkind & Frey, 2019). Gender, a dichotomous variable, was given the values of 0 and 1 and district typology, a categorical variable, was given the values of 1-8.

The actual and expected frequencies for gender and district typology were calculated for 609 superintendents across 8 district typologies. Typology 0 was omitted from the analysis because superintendent gender was unknown. Table 3 shows the number of female and male superintendents employed in each typology. The largest number of male superintendents at 99 and female superintendents at 18 were employed in *Typology 1: Rural-High Student Poverty & Small Student Population* districts. The least number of males at 5 and females at 3 were employed in *Typology 8: Urban-Very High Student Poverty & Very Large Population* districts.

Table 3

Chi-Square Statistics Actual Frequencies for Gender and District Typology

Actual Frequencies									
	Rural-High Student Poverty & Small Student Population	Rural-Average Student Poverty & Very Small Student Population	Small Town-Low Student Poverty & Small Student Population	Small Town-High Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	Suburban-Low Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	Suburban-Very Low Student Poverty & Large Student Population	Urban-High Student Poverty & Average Student Population	Urban-Very High Student Poverty & Very Large Student Population	Total
Male	99	94	96	75	63	38	36	5	506
Female	18	13	15	14	14	8	11	3	96
Total	124	107	111	89	77	46	47	8	602

The expected frequencies are displayed in Table 4. For male superintendents, the largest discrepancies were in *Typology 1: Rural High Student Poverty & Small Student Population* with actual at 99 and expected at 104.23 with a difference of 5.23 with fewer males employed in those

districts than expected. *Typology 2: Rural Average Student Poverty & Very Small Student Population* numbers were: actual at 94 and expected at 89.94 with a difference of 4.06 with more males employed in those districts than expected. For female superintendents, the largest discrepancies were in *Typology 2: Rural Average Student Poverty & Very Small Student Population* with actual at 13 and expected at 17.06 with a difference of 4.06 with fewer females employed in those districts. *Typology 7: Urban High Student Poverty & Average Student Population* numbers were: actual at 11 and expected at 7.50 with a difference of 3.5 with more females employed in those districts than expected.

Table 4

Chi-Square Statistics Expected Frequencies for Gender and District Typology

Expected Frequencies

	Rural-High Student Poverty & Small Student Population	Rural-Average Student Poverty & Very Small Student Population	Small Town-Low Student Poverty & Small Student Population	Small Town-High Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	Suburban-Low Student Poverty & Average Student Population Size	Suburban-Very Low Student Poverty & Large Student Population	Urban-High Student Poverty & Average Student Population	Urban-Very High Student Poverty & Very Large Student Population	Total
Male	104.23	89.94	93.30	74.81	64.72	38.66	39.50	6.72	506
Female	19.77	17.06	17.71	14.20	12.28	7.34	7.50	1.28	96
Total	124	107	111	89	77	46	47	8	602

A Chi-Square Test was used to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and district typographies for male and female superintendents in Ohio. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between gender and district typology. With an alpha level of .05, the relation between these variables was not statistically significant, X^2 (1, N = 602) = 8.9, p = 0.41. There was no significant association

between district typology and the gender of Ohio Superintendents. These results must be viewed with caution, due to the small sample of female superintendents which may have a false negative finding or a Type II error.

Findings

Lack of Female Superintendents

At the time of this research, there were 614 superintendents in the state of Ohio with 518 male and 96 females within the sample. This data demonstrates a lack of female superintendents in Ohio at only 15.6%. This discrepancy coincides with research that suggests that women are underrepresented in the position of superintendent, however, the Ohio percentage is significantly below the national average of approximately 27% female superintendents (Finnan et al., 2015). The national average has increased from 13% in 2000 (Glass et al., 2000). Considering this, Ohio is more than 15 years behind the national average and is not making significant gains to close the gender gap.

Fewer Women in Each Typology

There is a significant disproportion of male superintendents compared with female superintendents when examining the district typology of Ohio districts. Male superintendents represent between 62.5- 86% percent of each district typology coding, while female superintendents represent a mere 12.15-37.5% of each typology. Data distribution suggests that female superintendents have more representation in suburban and urban districts (district typology codes 6, 7, 8). This supports research by Sampson et al. (2015) who found that the largest percentages of female superintendents in Texas were found in major urban districts and central suburban districts.

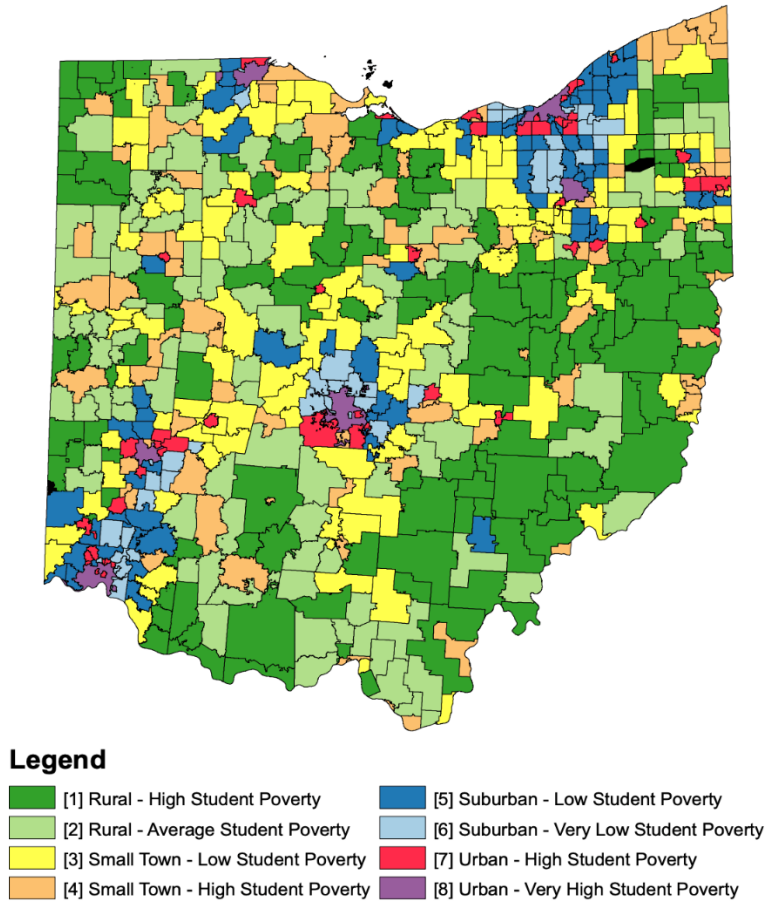
Data from this study shows that more males are superintendents in rural, and small-town districts (district typology codes 0, 1, 2, 3, 4). Although there are fewer numbers of females in these typologies, females do represent a greater percentage of superintendents in this area when proportion is considered. For example, of 5 total superintendents in typology code 0 females represented 20%, and of 8 total superintendents in typology code 9, females represented 37.5%. It may be these proportions that explain research by Dana and Bourisaw (2006) who found that nationally, females are more likely to serve in rural districts. When considering district typology, 60% of female superintendents serve in rural districts (Lemasters & Roach, 2012; Rogers & McCord, 2020).

Clusters of Female Superintendents

This research demonstrates that females in Ohio are more likely to serve as superintendent in the southwestern and northeastern parts of the state. Examination of these clusters of female superintendents demonstrate that females are more likely to serve in specific typologies. These cluster areas are heavily represented by typologies 5, 6, 7, and 8 which indicate suburban and urban districts, as evidenced by Figure 3.

Figure 3

2013 School District Typology



Note. This figure demonstrates district typology across the state of Ohio in 2013. It does not include the transition of Canton City and Youngstown City from type 7 to 8. From *Typology of Ohio School Districts*, by Ohio Department of Education, 2021 (http://education.ohio.gov/Topics/Data/Frequently-Requested-Data/Typology-of-Ohio-School-Districts).

The southwest and northeast areas of the state are also highly populated and have a large number of school districts. Some counties have a relatively large number of females, such as Cuyahoga (7) and Hamilton (6). Despite these relatively high numbers, the proportion of women in these counties is still low at 23% and 27%. Other counties like Jefferson and Clermont experience the inverse of this relationship with low numbers of female superintendents but a higher proportion for the county at 60% and 44%. Cuyahoga and Hamilton counties are identified as typology 5 for suburban with low student poverty, while Jefferson and Clermont are

identified as typology 1 for rural districts with high student poverty (Ohio Department of Education, 2021). This indicates that women are more likely to serve in suburban districts in Ohio, but because there are more schools in these areas, they are still underrepresented proportionally.

Female Superintendents in the Big 8

There is a high percentage (37%) of female superintendents in the Big 8 districts. The Big 8 districts in Ohio are comprised of the eight urban school districts – Akron, Canton, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo and Youngstown. The high percentage of women serving in these large urban districts speaks to the leadership style of female superintendents and their ability to make changes. Women are more likely than their male counterparts to work in districts with a higher percentage of people of color or districts with a large population of students who are experiencing homelessness or students with disabilities (Finnan et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2017). This suggests that high-need districts are more likely to hire females over males than districts that have lower needs. This phenomenon is referred to as the glass cliff that suggests that women are more likely to be promoted in high need organizations with the expectation that they are able to fix it (Ryan & Haslam, 2004). Zenger and Folkman (2020) expanded on the understanding of the glass ceiling to the glass cliff to explain that women may be put in difficult situations because of their ability to succeed despite obstacles. This research supports that women in Ohio are brought in to higher need districts in urban areas possibly with the intent to fix the issues that persist.

Further, females may be more likely to be hired by districts with less financial stability. AASA survey data demonstrated that female superintendents are "less optimistic about the economic stability of their district" than male superintendents (Rogers & McCord, 2020, p. 15).

Female superintendents in the field also recall scenarios in which women serve in higher-needs districts. Superintendent Bruckner explained that her school board hired her to turn the community around and school board members noted that she "meant business" (Superville, 2016a). Conclusions drawn from these data suggest that the leadership style of women lend themselves to be more effective in high-need districts than males. When correlated with the transformational leadership theory, this demonstrates that females seek to attain goals beyond their own self-interests (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978). Although this may help to explain why females are more likely to be hired as superintendent in high need districts, this continued gender inequity further demonstrates the gap between male and female superintendent positions.

No Significant Association Between Typology and Gender.

The results of the Chi Square Test indicate that there was no significant association between district typology and the gender of Ohio Superintendents. This may be due to the relatively small sample size of female superintendents, resulting in a false negative or Type II error. This also does not mean that superintendent gender and district typology do not have a correlation. Instead, this suggests that further investigation is necessary to determine if there is an underlying factor causing female superintendents to be more highly represented in one typology over another.

Discussion

This study provides insight into the district typologies where female superintendents serve in Ohio. It also continues to highlight the lack of female superintendents in the position and across all typology types. Cooper, Fusarelli, & Carella, (2000) describes the shortage of superintendents by reinforcing that, "Nearly 90% of superintendents nationally thought that the number of administrators willing to pursue this position is inadequate— a condition they blamed

on diminishing average tenure in office" (as cited in Kowalski, 2003, p. 288). Advocacy for seeking qualified superintendents, therefore, falls in the hands of superintendents themselves.

Female leadership style varies significantly when compared with males. Females are more apt to adopt a collaborative or shared leadership style that lends itself to problem-solving (Grogan and Shakeshaft, 2013). Through committees and advisory boards, females are more likely to hear opinions of many to make informed and collaborative decisions (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2013). This collaborative effort helps females to better understand and resolve issues. By focusing on these gender-specific skills (Bem, 1981), females become the logical choice for a district that is struggling. As noted by Zenger and Folkman (2020), this may explain why females are more likely to be superintendents in difficult districts.

School boards often seek designated leaders with specific attributes and characteristics, which qualify them for the superintendency. Hiring decisions should be based on professional qualifications, however, biases within the hiring process produce discrimination and stereotyping; the intersectionality of minority applicants is a key variable in hiring. For the superintendents who fall into the minority of administrators, such as Black and female superintendents, finding support from others is often difficult and discouraging. Research by Scott (1990) establishes that Black superintendents are sometimes appointed to school systems that are unwanted and under-supported. These school systems are defined by a lack of student achievement and financial disparities, consisting of students who are considered minority and come from low socioeconomic backgrounds (Scott, 1990). Minority superintendents are similar to rural superintendents in that they must establish professional leadership qualities and relationships with the community to gain acceptance.

Limitations of the Study

A limitation is that this research was conducted in Ohio and limited to one geographic area of the country that may not be representative of female superintendents from other states or representative of all superintendents, including males. The information involves one state, Ohio, and the persons employed as high school principals during one school year, 2015-2016. The sample included unique participants, however; since each state does not report the same information in the same manner, a limitation of the study might be the generalizability of the study to other states. Additionally, the scope of the research speaks to only one of fifty states within the United States. Finally, the lack of pre-existing research on this specific topic is a limitation.

Significance of Study

It is important to consider district typology because it determines the level of funding provided to each district and it provides an economic snapshot of the community relative to all other communities within the state of Ohio. It is further important for aspiring females to be aware of the district typology that is most likely to employ a female superintendent when considering job applications. Females place high importance on their proximity between work and home and are less likely to make a longer commute (Sperandio & Devdas, 2015). If females reside in a typology code that is less likely to promote female superintendents, this may serve as a barrier.

School administrators in rural communities in Ohio may experience unique barriers to success in comparison to urban communities. One barrier is maintaining the longevity of school administrators, such as the superintendency, which is the leading administrative position in a school district. Many rural communities are experiencing high turnover rates of superintendents;

Kamrath (2015) affirms that managerial inability, strong expectations for educational leadership and academic achievement, political agendas, and fiscal management are a few of the reasons for the high turnover rate. This provides an opportunity for female administrators to break the 'glass ceiling', seek new open positions, and move into the superintendency from outside districts.

In comparing rural school districts to urban school districts, the school district's size is a significant influence to the superintendent's role as a leader. By relating that members of small sized rural communities display strong community ties, Kamrath & Brunner (2014) suggest that school leaders can gain high visibility and high influence within the school system more easily. This is both a blessing and a curse to superintendents who feel the added pressure to support student achievement, to be strong leaders within their districts, and to promote moral values of school teachers and staff. Notably, superintendents who don't meet the expectations of the community may be seen as inadequate leaders; lack strong leadership within their rural districts which may cause the district to appear as unmanageable. This, consequently, decreases the likelihood of outsiders moving into administrative positions within rural districts. On the other hand, leaders may relish the opportunity of there not being a large pool of administrators seeking higher positions, reflecting on the shortage of superintendents. The shortage opens several opportunities for minority applicants seeking positions in the school district.

This article contributes to the field of education by highlighting the inequities that exist for female superintendents across the state. The number of female superintendents in Ohio (15.6%) significantly behind the national average of approximately 27% (Finnan et al., 2015). Further, this article suggests that females are more likely to serve in regions of the state clustered with large urban districts or in the Big 8 districts themselves.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are many additional topics that can be explored to further current research related to the gender disparity of the superintendent. One suggestion for future research is to investigate the impact of district typology on salary. Going one step beyond would involve the components of intersectionality: race/ethnicity, class, gender, and district typology, on annual income. This would be an important step in understanding the implications for the glass ceiling in respect to female superintendents.

To further extend this research, a more in-depth correlational study could be conducted to determine commonalities of districts with female superintendents. Since females are more concentrated near the large urban areas of the state, is there also a correlation that may explain why this occurs? One possible consideration could include political affiliations of individuals in districts or counties with female superintendents. Research explains that women are promoted to superintendent in districts with challenges due to their ability to succeed despite obstacles (Zenger & Folkman, 2020). To explore this, it would be important to examine factors including district report card grades, financial stability, student demographics, and districts in accountability status with the state. This would help to determine causality.

With educators being majority female and administrator majority male, it is imperative to determine where the pathway breaks down and what the barriers are for females. A narrative study to examine the lived experiences of female superintendents to determine how they were able to overcome challenges and successfully secure a superintendency in a male-dominated field would support the entrance of women in the field. Finally, it would be beneficial to conduct an exploration of the gendered differences of superintendents in their pathways to superintendency.

Another potential area for future research would be to expand on the necessary leadership competencies needed for superintendents related to gender differences. Maranto et al. (2018) suggested that females may be better suited to the role of superintendent because of their strong background in curriculum and instruction. A qualitative study of female superintendents would provide insight into the competencies needed while giving a voice to female superintendents. It is necessary for the field to continue to explore the inequities that exist for female leaders.

Conclusion

Although women have made their way into educational leadership roles, the reality of the superintendency is that most studies have shown few women hold the position. Researchers have explored the career paths of female superintendents (Davis & Bowers, 2019; Wallace, 2014), the barriers they encountered (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009; Lane-Washington & Wilson-Jones, 2010), and reasons they left the position (Robinson & Shakeshaft, 2015). This study was designed to identify where female superintendents secure positions in the superintendency.

A quantitative, descriptive research design was implemented to investigate state data regarding the demographics and typology of female superintendents in Ohio. This study provides information that may be useful to the parents of females, K–12 educators, single-gender K–12 schools, supervisors of women, institutions with leadership development programs, single-sex leadership programs, and most importantly, women who want to pursue leadership roles in education, particularly the superintendency.

The typology of female superintendents in Ohio uncovers systemic inequities and hidden factors behind the lack of female representation in the role of superintendent.

In conclusion, gender is a factor in district typology in the population examined in this study. Although the results of the Chi Square Test indicate that there was no significant

association between district typology and the gender of Ohio Superintendents, it is important to note that the descriptive statistics demonstrate that there is a correlation between gender and district typology. Females are more likely to serve as superintendent in school districts located within counties that also have a large urban district clustered in the southwestern and northeastern parts of the state and a higher percentage of females in the Big 8 districts. Females are also more likely to serve as superintendents in districts with suburban and urban typologies. The findings of this study also demonstrate the continued under-representation of females in the superintendency. Through this research, conclusions can be drawn to help aspiring female superintendents as they advance to the role of superintendent.

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